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NOTES AND COMMENT

THE CHILEAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM, WITH ESPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE POSITION OF THE UNIVERSITY

Chilean writers look upon the year 1813 as that which marked the beginning of their educational system. It was then that the revolutionary government, though at that very time in the thick of the War of Independence against Spain, saw fit to found the Instituto Nacional (National Institute). To be sure, something had existed in the colonial period, but, except for the old University of San Felipe, scarcely anything worthy of mention. As a result of the disasters to the patriot cause in the year 1814 the Instituto Nacional was closed, but reopened in 1819, since which time it has had a continuous existence.

In name the University of San Felipe lived on, for a few years, but the Instituto Nacional now monopolized higher education, serving both as a *liceo* (high school) and university in one. In 1839 the University of San Felipe was formally closed. In 1842 the University of Chile was founded, and in 1843 began to function. Henceforth the Instituto Nacional remained as a *liceo* only, and today is but one out of ninety. Its fame, however, is quite on a par with that of the University, not only because it was itself the university in earlier years, but also because by far the greater number of the most distinguished men in the history of Chile have received their education within its walls.

Since the University was founded, there have been twelve Rectors, or Presidents. Among the earlier Rectors the names of Andrés Bello and Barros Arana, respectively first and seventh, strike the attention of one who is looking over the list. Bello, though a native of Venezuela, belongs to Chile as a literary figure. His is perhaps the greatest name in the history of Chilean literature. Barros Arana is remembered primarily as one of the greatest historians that Chile has produced. Worthy compatriots of these men are the two latest of the "twelve Apostles", Valentín Letelier and Domingo Amunátegui, respectively eleventh and twelfth of the Rectors of the University. Letelier was a profound scholar, author of learned works on education,

historical method, and law. Amunátegui has been Rector of the University since 1911. A member of a family which has been unusually distinguished in the history of Chilean education and historiography, he has won renown in his own right which will inevitably entitle him to rank among the leading men of letters of Chile. As administrator, teacher, and historical scholar he would stand among the foremost in any country of the world. Withal he is possessed of such a fund of amiability as to win the unaffected devotion and friendship of all who are privileged to know him.¹

Four facts about present-day education in Chile impress themselves upon the investigator: the honored position of the "professor", including in that title all teachers, from the university to the primary school; the position and power of the University of Chile; the Germanic character of the system as a whole and of the methods of instruction; and the enthusiastic progress that is being made.

In Chile the "professor" is a person of distinction and influence, especially the favored group of those who obtain posts in Santiago. It is no uncommon thing for, let us say, a normal-school teacher to hobnob with ministers of state or even the President of the country himself. This is a pleasing surprise to the American professor who sees it for the first time. On the other hand, the Chileans get more glory than pay. Very few of the university professors, for example, are able to make a living out of their profession; they find it necessary to do something in addition, such as practice law or medicine or teach in secondary schools. Poorly as American teachers are paid, they nevertheless are in this particular in a better position than their brethren in Chile.

Unlike our own system of local responsibility for education, that of Chile is wholly under the control of the national government; even a primary school in an obscure village responds to orders, not from some local board, but from the ministry of education in Santiago. At the head of the system—one is half inclined to say nominally at the head—stands the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction. Chilean ministries rise and fall with such startling rapidity, in obedience to the parliamentary type of government which obtains in the country, that it is almost impossible for a cabinet member to become thoroughly

¹ This article in its preliminary form had the advantage of the constructive criticism of Señor Amunátegui, and such value as it may have is due primarily to him. It is needless to add that the above comments on Señor Amunátegui himself did not appear in the draft that he saw.

acquainted, even, with his own department. This has caused foreign students to believe, mistakenly, that this country is in a state of perpetual administrative chaos. The truth is that government goes on in spite of changing ministries, because the employes of lesser rank than the minister are appointed for life. There is no such thing as a "house-cleaning" on the advent to power of some hitherto minority party. Removals can take place, to be sure, but only for cause. The rule of life employment is very fairly observed. Indeed, one of the most important functions of a minister is to appoint his own political adherents to posts that have automatically become vacant, thus preserving his influence and that of his party after both have fallen from power.

This may be illustrated by the case of education. The various ministers in that branch have policies which change as rapidly as do the ministers. Next in rank to them comes the sub-secretary of education, the actual directing force of the system, and he remains. So too with other important officials, such as the sub-secretary of secondary and higher education and the inspector of primary schools. The last named official, for example, is a virtual dictator over the primary schools of the entire country. Under him are some 7,000 teachers, whom in first instance he appoints (whenever there is a vacancy) and whom he may dismiss for cause. It is true that his acts must be approved by the minister, but in practice they are.

From the foregoing one can easily see why it is that the University of Chile should hold such a powerful place in the educational affairs of the country. The Rector and the university professors are the only individuals of educational prestige who are constantly before the eyes of the public. To be sure, many of the officials in the educational bureaucracy are men of great distinction, but the system does not necessarily require them so to be, and their position is such that they inevitably prefer to do their work quietly, without seeking fame or risking denunciation. Thus it is that the opinions of the Rector or of the Council of the University have great weight. Furthermore, vast powers have been granted to the University, so that on the one hand it possesses extraordinary liberty in its internal government and on the other has a very nearly dominant place over the other schools below it. It is doubtful if any university in the world exercises so wide an authority.

By law the University is subordinate to the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction. In fact it is virtually independent. The most important governing body of the University is the Council, made up of the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction, the Rector of the

University, the Secretary General of the University, the five Deans of the University, the Rector of the Instituto Nacional, three members named by the President of Chile, and two named by the Cloister (or faculty) of the University—fourteen in all. This body is in a sense the legislature of the entire educational system in Chile as well as of the University. The Minister might refuse to follow its advice, but he rarely does, unless it is in conflict with his own educational policy. From the very composition of the Council, it is easy to see that the Rector of the University would in fact be the dominating power. He also has a virtually determining influence, in company with the two members from the Cloister, over all administrative appointments within the University and all appointments of teachers to the *liceos*. He and his two associates place five names in nomination, from which the Council selects three, and the President of the country (or the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction) one. It is the custom for the Rector to indicate his choice by the order in which he lists his nominees; it is said that the names after the first often represent persons who it is known would not accept the appointment if it were proffered. At any rate his candidates are almost invariably selected. Indeed, certainly so far as the learned and amiable gentleman now at the head of the University is concerned, the Rector may be said to be easily the most important figure in the national educational system, for, subject though he is to the Council, he in fact has the support of that body.

Within the University itself the faculty has such power as is almost undreamed of in the United States. The whole body of the faculty forms the Cloister, to which also belong certain distinguished scholars who, though they are not teachers in the University, are elected by the Cloister itself to membership therein; in their case election to the Cloister is equivalent in Chile to becoming an Academician in such countries as France and Spain. In the main, perhaps, the meetings of the Cloister are of the same harmless variety as the typical faculty meetings in universities of the United States, but it has several very important functions. It elects the two members of the Council who join with the Rector in the making of appointments in first instance, as described above, and who therefore give the faculty a voice in the deliberations of the powerful Council. In like manner the Cloister elects the Secretary General of the University, who also sits with the Council. Of still more import, it elects the Rector of the University himself! Still further, the Rector as such is the only member of the faculty who does not hold a life appointment. His term of

office runs for but four years. It has been the custom, however, to reelect the Rector. Señor Amunátegui is now in his third term, and is universally popular.

In yet other ways, though in many of them apart from the Cloister, the members of the faculty have a wide-reaching authority. The University controls secondary education in that the teachers of *liceos* must have a "title", or degree, authorizing them to teach, and this can be obtained only from the University of Chile. But the student cannot possibly receive his title unless first he wins the approbation of his individual professors. In like manner the University and the members of the faculty have vast power over the medical profession, for here, too, the degree of the University is a license to practice and is the only license that is given. Thus the faculty of the University has a function in Chile which in the United States is reserved by the government to itself. The University alone can grant titles in various other professions—engineering, for example—but their acquisition is not required, wherefore one need not attend the University of Chile to study these branches. Finally, the faculty, this time in the meetings of the Cloister, decides on appointments to its own body whenever any vacancy in the teaching staff occurs. Whatever the law on the point may be, it is the fact that these elections are determining.

It is to be remembered, too, that the University of Chile occupies a unique place among the higher institutions of learning. A little farther up the Alameda de Delicias, the broad avenue upon which the University faces, is the Catholic University of Chile, which duplicates many of the courses in the national university. Nevertheless, it may not grant "titles", wherefore it necessarily suffers by comparison with the University of Chile. A private university has recently been established at Concepción in southern Chile, but this has yet to win a share in the extraordinary power now possessed by the University of Chile alone.

Through the Council the University of Chile has very great power over primary education, but less, however, than over the secondary schools. Aspirants for the title of primary school teacher do not enter the University, but go instead to some one of the various normal schools. Naturally, the amount of preparation required of a primary school teacher is less by several years than for the teachers in secondary education. To a certain extent the power of the normal schools in primary education resembles that of the University in the case of the *liceos*, since they have the sole power to grant or withhold titles. There

are a number of normal schools, however, instead of one central institution, and this makes it easier for the government inspector of primary schools to wield a power of which the official in charge of university and secondary education would never dream.

The University seal has five symbols to represent the different colleges of which it is composed. These are Theology, Law, Medicine, Engineering, and Philosophy and the Humanities. One of these, that of Theology, is virtually non-existent. In 1835 a theological seminary was established apart from the Instituto Nacional, which at that time served as the state university. If theological students seek a degree in theology, they must obtain it from the University. Since, however, the church makes priests, and not the state, the students of the seminary do not in fact present themselves at the University. Curiously enough, nevertheless, one of the five Deans of the University represents Theology—a post which is purely and simply an historical survival.

Really there are several other minor schools, or colleges, within the University, such as Pharmacy, Dentistry, Architecture, Fine Arts, and Physical Education. All of the schools of the University are rigorously professional and more or less mutually exclusive. A student who has failed in one of them cannot transfer credits to another, but must start in with the first year again, if he is still desirous of pursuing an education in the University. There will be no courses that he can transfer, for each college has its own curriculum complete. Thus, chemistry will be taught in the colleges of Medicine, Engineering, and Pedagogy, and differently in each; so too with other courses.

The same exclusive principle turns up within each college. Thus in the Instituto Pedagógico (Pedagogical Institute, of which, more, presently) one may choose from among the various fields, such as Spanish, French, English, German, History and Geography, Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, each representing a subject that is taught in the secondary schools. If one chooses History and Geography, he will assuredly have no time for any of the others, and similarly if he selects another field. All, indeed, are required to attend courses in pedagogy proper and to serve as practice teachers in the *liceo* which adjoins the Instituto Pedagógico. Another curious factor is that each course runs through the entire length of a university student's career. In the History of America, for example, the professor reaches Magellan in the first year, deals with the conquest in the second, takes up colonial institutions in the third, and treats of the wars of inde-

pendence and the republican era in the fourth. It may be said further that the subjects taught in the Instituto Pedagógico are precisely the same as those of the *liceos* and that the teachers are licensed to give instruction only in the subject which they have studied in the University. In rare instances a student is able to pass in more than one field, in which case he receives a title in each. From the above it will appear that the *liceo* is the one school which makes a pretense at breadth of education.

Whatever one may think of the system as a whole, there is much to be said in commendation of the methods within courses. Classes are taught with an emphasis on sources and criticism that one rarely finds, short of the graduate seminar, in the United States. The above mentioned class in the History of America, taught at present by Luis Puga, a thorough-going scholar, may be taken for purposes of illustration. A single volume work by the great Chilean historian Barros Arana is used as a text. This is not paralleled or duplicated at all by Professor Puga. He devotes his time to a discussion of the sources and to lectures on disputed points, such for example as the birthplace of Columbus. Twice a year the students are required to write papers on assigned topics. These papers, in the opinion of the present writer, are superior to the average term paper of students in our own universities. More attention is paid in them to sources and proof, with an apparent use of criticism, and less weight is given to mere accumulation of incident. The standards of the teacher are high, to the point of severity. Last year, in a class of twenty, only ten passed.

The Chilean professors make use of the recitation, but not of the periodical examination. The decision as to whether a student passes or fails is left to a veritable inquisition (resembling our doctoral examination) at the end of the year. In this examination the other professors of the particular college also take part. It may be written or oral or both, but usually it is oral.

Of the four leading colleges, that of Law unquestionably has the poorest reputation. It is said to be the easiest of all, though the course lasts five years and few are able to finish. If the reports one hears are true, the purely legal courses are least thorough, while those in international law, economics, political science, and other subjects which are annexed to the curriculum of this college have a somewhat better standing. It is a fact, however, that many of the students in this college add courses in some other field, especially among those of the Instituto Pedagógico—or, rather, many in the latter also take law,

in order to procure a title in another profession, whereby they may supplement their scanty emolument as teachers. This very largely accounts for the heavy registration in the college of Law. At the present time there are about 700 enrolled. Less than ten per cent remain through the five years and win the title.

The college of Medicine has some 600 students of whom about twenty a year receive the title of doctor. The course lasts six years, and is expensive as well as difficult, wherefore many drop out of their own accord. The same thing may be said of the college of Engineering, which, however, does not at present bear a particularly good reputation. There are about 300 students in this college. The course is six years long.

Philosophy and the Humanities are represented by the Instituto Pedagógico, which is the nearest approach that the Chileans have to a College of Letters and Science in our sense of the term. It has by far the highest reputation of the various colleges of the University. According to one writer, "this establishment is a model school, a center of lofty culture which honors the country. The teachers who are prepared there are competent and hard-working, and they acquire an arsenal of information." Of the 700 enrolled in this college some 400 are girls.

Graduate work is no part of the program of the University of Chile. None of the higher degrees are awarded; the title "Doctor" is applied only to physicians.

It must be apparent that the source of inspiration for Chilean education has been Germany. Chilean students who have gone to Europe for graduate study have usually attended German universities, and Germans have been procured for some of the most important educational posts in Chile; indeed, men of other nationality could not be persuaded to leave their country for the small salaries offered, but the German left the homeland easily, and was willing to remain in Chile at a modest wage. Having no longstanding educational tradition such as existed in the United States, the Chileans quite naturally followed the system with which they were best acquainted, that of Germany.

That Chile is still in its educational infancy can be well appreciated when it is understood that in a population of some 4,000,000, about half—sixty per cent according to some accounts—can neither read nor write, despite the fact that for a generation the law has provided that education should be free and *obligatory*. One must not forget, however, that the advances of recent years have been at a most gratifying

rate, and have been remarkable as concerns the education of women. In 1918, in some 3,000 primary schools there were 174,000 girls and 162,000 boys. Of the ninety *liceos*, some fifty were for girls. The girls numbered 13,000 and the boys 17,000. In various special schools—normal schools, industrial schools, etc.—there were more than 7,300 girls and less than 7,000 boys. In the University the exact figures were 941 young women and 3,287 men. Thirty years ago these figures would have been astounding. At the present rate of progress the Chileans may look ahead with assurance to the attainment of their educational aspirations in the not very distant future.

CHARLES E. CHAPMAN,
United States Exchange Professor to Chile.

MEXICO: A PICTURE FROM REAL LIFE

In August nineteen fifteen, the battleships *Louisiana* and *New Hampshire* were sent to Vera Cruz, as a precautionary measure in the face of certain anticipated or probable complications in the already unsettled condition of affairs in Mexico. I was serving on board the *New Hampshire* at the time. We remained there three or four weeks, during which time there was nothing in the way of military operations on our part. Our visit was to all intents and purposes the usual kind that men-o'-war make in the ports of friendly neutral powers, except that intercourse with the shore was under some restrictions on account of existing conditions. Enlisted men were not granted shore leave. Officers were permitted to go ashore only as a special privilege. They were expected to confine their movements to the city and its immediate environs, and not to approach the outposts surrounding the city. Under such circumstances it was not possible for me to get that more extended first-hand knowledge of Mexico and its people that I so much desired, but I made close observation and study of all that came within my reach. I was fortunately in possession of a familiarity with everyday Spanish. Without this master-key to the soul of the individual and the nation, those poor people that I met on the shore and in the huts on the outskirts of the city would have been no more to me than dumb animals.

My time on shore was spent in walking about the city, inspecting the shops and places of interest, doing a little shopping now and then, and in riding for an hour or so along the beaches and in the outskirts

of the city, within permissible limits; usually in company with shipmates. In spite of the unsettled conditions and the interruption in the customary pursuits for the preceding four years or so, the markets were fairly well stocked with eatables. From the burning sands of Vera Cruz to the snow-capped peak of Orizaba, every range of climate came within our view. Fruits and vegetables of the temperate zone were found in the markets alongside the pineapple and other tropical fruit. Poultry was plentiful, good, and cheap. A turkey cost a dollar and a chicken twenty cents. Fish were as plentiful and as good as anywhere. The red snapper abounds, than which there is no better. With what we found on shore and what we had in the ship's stores, living was good, and mess-bills low.

The stores collected some revenue from the American visitors. Laces were favorite "bargains." The coveted and prohibited egrets were also bartered. Articles in leather were of excellent quality and workmanship. The Mexicans are great on fancy saddles and bridles. I am still wearing a pair of bed-room sandals, made to order with monogram on each, bought in Vera Cruz for one dollar. The white uniforms I got there have just lately gone to rags. Having drifted into personal affairs, I might just as well tell how I got my riding trousers. In English we say a pair of pants; in Spanish, they say, "un pantalon". One of my shipmates ordered "un par de pantalones." The order, being filled, gave him two pair of trousers, whereas he wanted only one "pair". I took the other. Nothing is left of them now but the buttons. The Mexican people are unusually good at feather work. Cards, suitable for the names of table guests and like purposes, are made with a miniature bird embossed in one corner with tiny feathers. Quantities of these were bought, being interesting curios, as well as useful.

Military contingents were quartered in different parts of the city. Now and then detachments were moved through the streets, and transported by train or steamer. The Mexican soldier is a familiar picture. It was not unusual to see very young boys in the ranks, some of them hardly big enough to carry a gun. There were, no doubt, many well-inclined people among the military element; but it was the best policy to avoid intercourse with them. It was from certain of this class that a friendly salutation might bring no more courteous response than a surly or contemptuous "Hello meestare." I did not come in contact with any of the higher military officials, but had some conversation with several of the company officers. They said it was

quite safe in the city, but it was best not to go beyond the line of outposts, as there was no telling when a party of bandits might be encountered.

Owing to the disorder in Mexico City, and the frequent raids of Zapata and other party leaders, a number of residents of the Capital sought safety in Vera Cruz. Our visit was not without social life. We enjoyed the company of people from shore, Americans and native residents; and they enjoyed our moving pictures, our music and dancing, and sugar-cured hams. Such names as Carlota, Carmen, and Madalena, became quite familiar to the young American officers. Thrilling accounts were given by some of the fair fugitives of their experiences in Mexico City during Zapata's raids. Of Americans there were quite a few, of different kinds. It was not hard to find amongst them those who had something to say about the others. Varied opinions were expressed by different ones about Mexico and its leading men, and about the United States and those who were doing things in the Great Republic to the north.

We got our horses from one Ramon Otero, who kept a large stable near the slaughter house. He was a genial and obliging Spaniard, who evidently went to some trouble to get the horses for us, as the government had commandeered all the good mounts. He was chary about having his horses seen around the army headquarters, as he might lose them with very little to show for them. His wife, "La Señora", was a woman of education and refinement,—relatively speaking. There are doubtless vicious people in Mexico; but the amiable disposition, the respectfulness, and deference to position shown by the kind-hearted fellows who brought the horses, and their appreciation of any little favor, went a long way toward softening the harsh accounts of bandit outrages.

In the vacant places in the city, families were living in temporary shelters made of boxes and pieces of corrugated iron. They were huddled together on the platforms of the railroad station and the warehouses. There they cooked their fish and beans in earthen pots over a few pieces of charcoal: there they slept; men, women, children, dogs, and goats. They were poor, but contented with their lot, and happy in finding even this way of existing out of danger of the roving bandits. I talked to these people, and to those I met on the shore, gathering and carrying bundles of firewood, driving their donkeys burdened with fodder or jugs and bottles, working on their boats, or mending their nets; and the family groups in or about the huts on the beach. In conversation and manner they were kind and hospitable. In return

for my salutations, I invariably received a look, and "Buenos dias, Señor", so full of spontaneous politeness, gentleness, kindness, and goodwill, that it was impossible to form an incorrect estimate of their character. Now and then would be seen the gay Mexican of the geography picture, with wide-brimmed felt hat, short jacket, red sash, and flaring bell-buttoned trousers; mounted on a spirited horse with saddle of ornamental trappings. I have seen nearly all the races of the world, but was never more impressed than with that type occasionally seen—the straight black hair, the wistful eyes, and a color in the cheek like the skin of a ripening peach.

In Vera Cruz, as in all Spanish-American cities, there is a cathedral facing the plaza or principal square. Here as elsewhere are seen the richly decorated altars and statues in contrast to the naked babies and poorly clad mothers in the doorways. The same incongruity of things is found in the store where the vilest literature ever printed is displayed along with the prayer-books, rosaries, and images of the saints. The full name of the city is, "Las tres veces Heroica Ciudad de Vera Cruz". It is not known that it has ever been attacked without being taken, yet it claims to have defended itself well enough on three different occasions to deserve this title, without which no official document is complete.

Riding one day along the shore a little beyond the slaughter house, I passed a dreamy-looking Mexican, and a little farther along came upon some verses written in the sand, which I did not stop to read, but I wish now that I had done so. Still farther on my way there was a line written in the same clear, even hand, which I did read. It was "*Mexicanos, que pretenden hacer los Americanos*"? Mexicans, what do the Americans pretend to be doing? I looked at the ships with their colors flying. I looked along the shore and over the city. I asked myself the same question, and left it to somebody else to write the answer.

In conclusion may I be permitted to say that, in my opinion, it is unjust to judge Mexico as a whole by the character and conduct of particular elements—the ambitious and unscrupulous in the master class, those who actually prefer warfare for its own sake to a condition of peace, and the lawless bandit gangs. In my belief, a large part of the people of Mexico are as free from harm to their fellow beings as the sheep on the plains; and as worthy of the love and sympathy, as deserving of the protection and help of the people of the United States as are the inhabitants of any other country in the world today.

GILBERT P. CHASE.

New Orleans, August 23, 1919.

CENTRAL AMERICA AND THE MONROE DOCTRINE

To the World Peace Conference at Paris Dr. Policarpo Bonilla, ex-President of the Republic of Honduras and its delegate to that conference, submitted a statement regarding the Monroe Doctrine with a proposal that a definite and final interpretation of the doctrine be agreed upon. This communication was dated April 22, 1919, and may be translated as follows:

In this covenant [of the League of Nations] all peoples represented in this Conference are directly interested; the smaller nations, like that which I represent, more if possible than the greater ones. Its bases, as expressed by the Commission, are not known; but the public press has asserted that amendments have been proposed: among these a proposal by the delegation of North America, to declare that "the pact does not affect the validity of other international conventions, such as the arbitration treaties or regional understandings, like the Monroe Doctrine, to assure the maintenance of the peace."

The Monroe Doctrine affects the Latin American republics directly. As it has never been written into an international document, nor been expressly accepted by the nations of the Old Continent, nor of the New World; and as it has been defined and applied in different manners by presidents and other statesmen of the United States of America, I believe that it is necessary that in the pact about to be subscribed it should be defined with entire clearness, in such way that it may be incorporated in the written international law.

The North American delegation is presided over by the Honorable Woodrow Wilson, and it is certain that if the Monroe Doctrine was not defined the delegation had in mind the definition or interpretation that Mr. Wilson, as President of the United States, has given to it in his various addresses from that which he voiced at Mobile in 1913 to the last in the current year.

In these he declared that this Doctrine is not a menace, but is a guaranty for the feeblest of the nations of America; and he repudiated expressly the interpretations that had been made to signify that the United States had a right to exercise a kind of tutelage over the other republics of America.

Especially in his discourse with the Mexican journalists on June 7th, 1919, he declared that the guaranty that this Doctrine implied in favor of the feeble countries is not with relation to the powers of the Old World only, but relates to the United States also; and he spoke of the celebration of a Pan American pact that might be realized and might include this point. Such declarations have made President Wilson the best of the exponents of the ideals of the peoples of Latin America.

All these facts induce me to present the accompanying proposition, which I hope will merit a favorable reception by the delegation of the United States, and will be supported by the Latin American republics, which with it will pay their tribute of admiration and respect to the First Magistrate of the North American republic, that has given such proofs of its love of justice.

If the American amendment to which I referred is phrased in the terms published, or in others like them, the pact of the League of Nations will be no ob-

stacle to a union or confederation of other form, by the peoples of Latin America, that will tend to a realization of the dream of the immortal Bolívar.

I wish to make a final declaration: When I shall subscribe, in the name of Honduras, the pact that is projected, I make beforehand the express reservation for my country of the right that is given by its constitution of uniting with one or more of the nations of the Central American Isthmus, with the purpose of reconstituting what was once the Republic of Central America; and I make this express reserve because this union would constitute the most beautiful ideal of the patriotism in that region, and no doubt should be left about the right to its realization.

The clause which Dr. Bonilla offered as an addition to the proposed compact of the League of Nations may be translated as follows:

This Doctrine, that the United States of America have maintained since the year 1823, when it was proclaimed by President Monroe, signifies that: All the republics of America have a right to independent existence; that no nation may acquire by conquest any part of the territory of any of these nations, nor interfere with its internal government or administration, nor do any other act to impair its autonomy or to wound its national dignity. It is not to hinder the "Latin" American countries from confederating or in other forms uniting themselves, seeking the best way to realize their destiny.

The foregoing was dated April 22, 1919. Early in 1920 the republic of Salvador asked the U. S. Department of State for a formal definition of that Doctrine, that the government of that country might know exactly the conditions to which it would consent, if it should subscribe to the convention or agreement on which the League of Nations is based.

EDWARD PERRY.

The *New York Sun* of March 29, published an editorial entitled "'Hispanic' versus 'Latin' America," in which the writer, after speaking of the movement to encourage the use of the term "Hispanic America" in place of "Latin America", and noting that, with the exception of Haiti, the term is correct, concludes that Hispanic American countries should be spoken of specifically by name, rather than under a general term, such as "South American", "Latin American", or "Hispanic American". The editorial cites especially the Hispanic Society of America and THE HISPANIC AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW as standing for the employment of the term "Hispanic America", which they use to cover all the countries south of the United States—Brazil, as well as all others. The use of "Hispanic", the author notes,

is increasing, although "Ibero" is just as correct and is not open to the same objections so far as the Brazilians are concerned. The latter term, he notes, does not include Haiti, either. "Hispanic" is of course taken from the old Roman name for the Iberian Peninsula, "Hispania", and with the exception of Haiti is correct. Let it be granted that "Hispanic" and "Ibero" are technically correct. The first is euphonious, the second is not. The first is, in fact, as euphonious as the word "Latin", and has the advantage of being accurate (with the exception of Haiti), while "Latin" is not so. Consequently, why not use the more correct term? Every student of Hispanic America will be thoroughly in accord with the editorial suggestion that the individual names of the Hispanic countries be used whenever possible. However, it is impossible not to speak of these republics under the general designation at times, and it is just as easy to use the term "Hispanic" as "Latin".

Dr. Nicanor Sarmiento, of Buenos Aires, who organized the Congress of Bibliography and History which met in Buenos Aires in 1916, and at which Professors Charles E. Chapman and William Spence Robertson were the only delegates from the United States, announces that his proposal for the foundation of an American Academy of History has been realized. The organization meeting of the body was held at Buenos Aires, October 11, 1919, and the "Estatatos" have been published. The organization meeting was attended by the ambassador of the United States and ministers of other American countries. Dr. Chapman is a charter member of the Academy, and as he could not be at the organization meeting, an alternate, Dr. Gase, was appointed by Dr. Sarmiento. Dr. Gase addressed the meeting in which he eulogized historical study in the United States. The Academy should be supported by all historical and similar organizations in the United States, as well as by all persons interested in the history of Hispanic America. Dr. Nicanor Sarmiento, whose address is Montevideo 21, Buenos Aires, Argentina, desires to correspond with all who are interested in this movement. This Academy ought to be very influential in the cultivation of intellectual bonds between the Hispanic American countries and the United States.

El Comercio, of Lima, Peru, in its issue of April 17, 1920, states that the Board of the University of San Marcos has resolved to entrust Doctor Belaunde with an important mission of intellectual union with

the Universities of North America. Dr. Belaunde, who is well known in the United States, will deliver lectures on the following subjects in universities and Hispanic centers in the United States:

1. The new criterion regarding the communism of the Inca race and its transcendancy in the present structure of Peru.
2. Colonial civilization.
3. Political evolution in the Republic.
4. The characteristics of economic life in Peru.
5. The economic future of the country and the uses of American capital.
6. Main aspects of the intellectual evolution of Peru.
7. The three periods of the history of the University of Lima.
8. Peru and International Arbitration.
9. The question of the Pacific (the causes of the war).
10. The question of the Pacific (the violation of the Treaty of Ancón).

A Summer School of Pan American and Foreign Commerce was formally inaugurated on July 19, at the Pan American Union. At this meeting, over which Mr. John Barrett, Director General of the Pan American Union presided, addresses were made by Dr. R. S. MacElwee, Director of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Sr. D. J. Antonio López Gutiérrez, Minister of Honduras, Sr. D. J. E. Lefevre, Chargé d'Affaires of Panama, Admiral W. S. Benson, of the United States Shipping Board, and Mr. Clarence J. Owens, Director General of the Southern Commercial Congress. It should be noted that this is the first summer school of this nature ever instituted in the United States or probably in any other country. Intensive work is being done so that the field of foreign commerce may be covered as fully as possible—the school has been called the first Plattsburg training camp for foreign commerce. About fifty students, representing a wide field enrolled for the course. Dr. R. S. MacElwee is acting as dean and Dr. Julius Klein, Commercial Attaché for the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce in Buenos Aires, who has just returned from Argentina, is one of the lecturers. If the experiment works well this year, it is probable that the school will become a permanent institution and be held each summer. It is very largely concerned with Hispanic America. It is suggested that historical students would find this a very valuable addition to their studies.

HISPANIC AMERICA IN THE MADRID PRESS

The press of Madrid, which until recently has regarded trans-Atlantic affairs with a certain amount of polite indifference has in recent months evinced a growing interest in Hispanic America. From its first appearance *El Sol* has dedicated a section to this subject under the rubric first of "America Latina" and later "Iberoamerica." This change was probably due to the opposition of the well-known Spanish philologist Ramon Menéndez Pidal to the term "América Latina." It is to be noted, however, that Menéndez Pidal advocated the use of "Hispanoamericana" rather than the somewhat unhappy neologism "Iberoamericana." This section in *El Sol* is in charge of the Peruvian publicist Sr. D. Manuel A. Bedova. Somewhat later *El Figaro*, under the name of "Las Rutas de America" began to devote a section to Hispanic American topics under the charge of the distinguished historian Dr. Rafael Altamira. Finally the weekly periodical *El España* opened a "Crónica Americana" beginning with February, 1919. This section, in which the affairs of the New World are handled with great frankness is assumed to be under the charge of the well known publicist Sr. D. Manuel Pedroso.—PERCY ALVIN MARTIN.

The Maryland State Teachers' Association held its annual conference this year at Ocean City, Maryland. The departmental meeting on history, held on the morning of Wednesday, June 30, was devoted entirely to Hispanic American history. Dr. Dana G. Munro, of the Department of State read a paper on "Pan-Americanism", and Dr. Mary W. Williams of Goucher College, one on "Introducing our Latin-American Neighbors by means of the Classroom". In her paper, Professor Williams included both high and grade schools.

Mr. Juan C. Cebrián, of San Francisco, sailed recently for an extended stay in Spain. While there, he will visit various cities, for the purpose of making investigations in archives and libraries.

Dr. Manoel Oliveira Lima, who had expected to sail for the United States some time ago, in order to assume his new post at the Catholic University of America, has been unable to leave Brazil, but hopes to sail within a short time.

A new Biblioteca Nacional building is being erected in Santiago, Chile, which will have a capacity of 2,000,000 volumes. Next to the library will stand a National Archives building—a necessity among civilized nations that the United States still lacks. Two of the important rooms of the Library are named for historians—Barros Arana and Medina.

Professor Joaquín García Monge, the well known historical student of San José, Costa Rica, is not only the Secretary of Public Instruction of Costa Rica, but editor of the excellent Review *Reportorio Americano*. Dr. García Monge has expressed a desire to enter into relations with students of Hispanic American history in the United States.

Professor Raúl Ramírez, of the English department of the University of Chile, who has been chosen by the Chilean government as exchange professor to the University of California, has arrived and taken up his duties. Professor Ramírez is a master of English, and has entered enthusiastically upon his work in California.

Sr. D. Ramón Laval, who is assistant chief at the Biblioteca Nacional of Santiago, Chile, is also editor of *Revista Chilena de Historia*.

Dr. Charles W. Hackett has been appointed adjunct professor of Hispanic American History in the University of Texas. He succeeds Dr. W. E. Dunn, who resigned recently to become editor of the Hispanic American section of the *New York Sun*.

Dr. Dunn, while still holding his connection with the staff of the *Sun* has lately joined the staff of Simmons and Co., a hardware concern, with main offices in St. Louis and foreign export department in New York. In the absence of the manager of the above department on a foreign trip, Dr. Dunn is acting manager of the export department.

Rev. John F. O'Hara, S.C., of the University of Notre Dame, is spending several months in South America. He spent a few days recently in Santiago, Chile.

Dr. N. A. N. Cleven, University of Arkansas, reports that whereas he had expected an enrollment of some fifteen or twenty students in the course on Hispanic American history which he offered at the Uni-

versity in 1919, he had over fifty. This necessitated a division of the class and double work, but the enthusiasm of the classes was worth the extra time.

Professor Milledge L. Bonham, Jr., is teaching at the University of Vermont Summer School this season.